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July 27, 2011

Ultra Fast Optics 2011  
Monterey, CA, United States  
September 26, 2011 through September 30, 2011

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# Radoptic x-ray detection with picosecond resolution

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**Abstract:** We present results from a novel single-transient x-ray detection system with a temporal resolution of  $\sim 1$ ps. The approach relies upon the x-ray induced modulation of the optical index of refraction to amplitude modulate a probe beam. The amplitude modulated probe beam is then recorded on an ultrafast single-shot time lens recording system.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Prompt diagnostics of fusion burn at the National Ignition Facility will require temporal resolution of 1ps or better. Most conventional x-ray (and other ionizing radiation) detectors yield a signal by producing electrons (and holes in the case of semiconductor based detectors), and transporting, or otherwise manipulating the produced charge to form a signal. Usually, the transport and manipulation of charged particles is what limits the achievable temporal response of these detectors. In our approach we use x-rays to directly modulate the amplitude of an optical probe beam without the transport of charged particles.

We have long been interested in directly modulating a probe beam with ionizing radiation as it passed through a semiconductor<sup>1</sup>; but these early approaches were lacking a well-understood physics framework. Later, work in all-optical switching came to our attention (such as Park<sup>2</sup>), furnishing a much better-understood physical framework. All-optical switching is usually defined as “light switching light”. Many approaches to all-optical switching rely upon an optical pump beam which produces a relatively high-density of electron-hole (e-h) pairs. Through various mechanisms this modulation of the e-h pair density produces a change in the optical index of refraction that is seen by a probe beam (thereby producing a mechanism to control or switch the probe beam). As noted above, most x-ray detectors function by the production of charge when x-rays interact with matter; it is then natural to suppose that x-rays could be used to modulate the index of refraction directly. We then successfully demonstrated the existence of a radoptic effect<sup>3</sup>; showing a significant negative index shift was associated with the absorption of x-rays, and we began work to develop fieldable detectors<sup>4</sup>.

## II. THE RADOPTIC EFFECT

Figure 1 illustrates a snapshot of phase objects (local regions of modified optical index) created by intercepting a beam of x-rays, particle fluence,  $\psi$  (xrays/ $\mu\text{m}^2$ ) and particle energy,  $E_{\text{rad}}$  while simultaneously propagating an optical probe with beam area  $A_{\text{mode}}$  through the same volume of semiconductor. The total phase shift,

$\phi = N_x \delta\phi$ , where  $N_x$  is the number of x-rays absorbed in the volume illuminated by the probe beam, and  $\delta\phi$  is the phase shift in the probe due to a single phase object and is given by,  $\delta\phi = \frac{E_{\text{rad}}}{A_{\text{mode}}} \kappa$ , (see ref. 4).

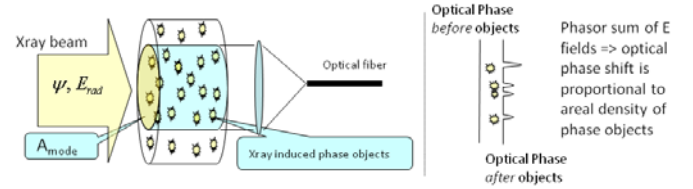


Fig 1. Probe modulation by x-ray produced phase objects

The spatial extent of the e-h cloud and presumably the phase object is very small,  $\sim 10^{-4} \mu\text{m}^3$  (e.g., for 10 keV x-rays in Carbon, see ref. 5). Finally,  $\kappa$  (milliradians-keV/ $\mu\text{m}^2$ ) is a parameter that represents the intrinsic sensitivity. The total phase shift is then given by,  $\phi = \kappa \tilde{\psi}$  where  $\tilde{\psi}$  = the absorbed x-ray energy fluence (keV/ $\mu\text{m}^2$ ).

The quantity  $\phi$  is proportional to the signal amplitude that we measure; it is significant to note that this quantity is *independent of detector area*. This means the detector can be made quite small without sacrificing signal quality (subject to the limitations of particle statistics within the detector area, of course). Thus, in some sense x-ray imaging comes for free; differing significantly from conventional detection technology. The GATOR approach (ref. 6) exploits these imaging characteristics very efficiently.

We now generalize to a time-dependent x-ray intensity  $S(t)$ , which we measure in units of keV/ $\mu\text{m}^2$ -ps of absorbed x-ray energy, and recognize that the fundamental phase shift from each phase object has a temporal history characterized by a generation time, and a relaxation time,  $\tau_g$  and  $\tau_r$ , respectively. So, in general the total phase shift is given by  $\phi(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(t-\tau) \kappa(\tau, \tau_g, \tau_r) d\tau$ , where, our x-ray sensitivity parameter becomes time-dependent  $\kappa \rightarrow \kappa(\tau, \tau_g, \tau_r)$ . In the case where  $\tau_g$  is very small and  $\tau_r$  is long compared to the timescales of the x-ray signal, the sensitivity

parameter becomes a step function,  $\kappa(\tau) = \kappa\theta(\tau)$  and the phase shift can be written as,

$$\phi(t)_{\text{integrating}} = \kappa \int_{-\infty}^t S(\tau) d\tau; \quad (1)$$

In another limit, if both  $\tau_g$  and  $\tau_r$  are small the sensitivity parameter is proportional to the Dirac delta function and

$$\phi(t)_{\text{impulsive}} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(t-\tau) \hat{\kappa} \delta(\tau) d\tau = \hat{\kappa} S(t). \quad (2)$$

The relationship between  $\kappa$  and  $\hat{\kappa}$  is complex and depends upon the details of the time-dependent  $\kappa(\tau)$ .

### III. DETECTION AND RECORDING

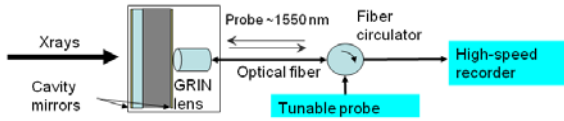


Fig.2. Generalized radsensor system diagram

In our system we use a Fabry-Perot cavity (radsensor) to convert the single-pass phase modulation,  $\phi(t)$ , to an amplitude modulation which is then recorded on a high-speed single-transient recorder. The recorder used for the results here was the time lens<sup>7</sup> system which has a measured rise-time of 0.9ps. Alternatively the SLIDER<sup>8</sup> system can also be used.

### IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Our pulsed x-ray source was the Callisto laser at LLNL's Jupiter Laser Facility, operating at 800 nm with 60fs optical pulses, shooting 12.5 micron Cu targets, yielding ~8keV Cu- $k_\alpha$  radiation, lower energy bremsstrahlung, and high energy electrons absorbed within the radsensors.

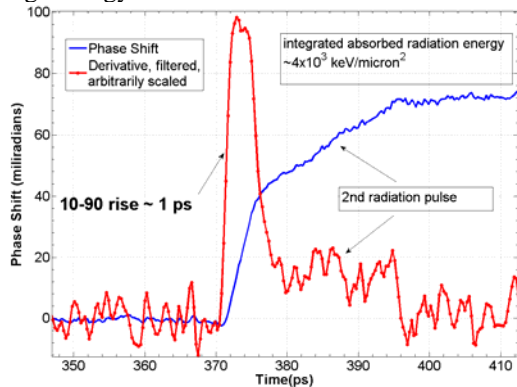


Fig. 3. "Integrating" detector x-ray response, shot 79.

Our radsensor detectors had an active region of epitaxially grown InGaAsP. The "impulsive" detector had an optically measured  $\tau_r \sim 3$ ps, due to the introduction of trapping centers by ion bombardment. The "integrating" detector active region was as-grown epi.

The blue trace in figure 3 represents the x-ray induced phase shift for a detector whose response is approximated by Eq. (1). The red-trace is the derivative of the blue trace that has been moderately filtered and arbitrarily scaled in amplitude. The ~1ps rise of the derivative trace demonstrates that  $\tau_g < 1$ ps. For the integrating detector we estimate that  $\kappa \sim 0.05$  mradians-keV/ $\mu\text{m}^2$  by our x-ray calibrations.

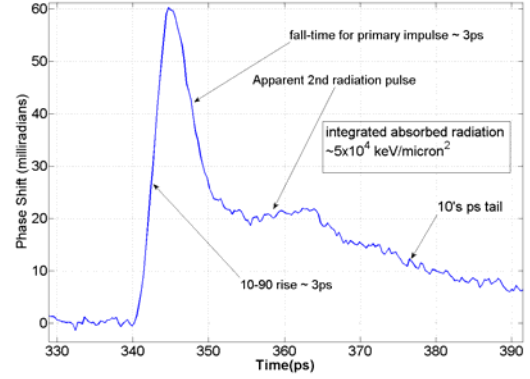


Fig. 4. "Impulsive" detector x-ray response, shot 369.

The response of the "impulsive" detector, figure 4, approximated by Eq. (2), generally follows the shape of the derivative in figure 3, including the apparent 2<sup>nd</sup> x-ray pulse which was evident in many shots. The signal "tail" could be due to inhomogenous ion implantation or possibly a result of the Callisto laser becoming detuned.

### V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

There was significant shot-to-shot variation in the signal rise-times, probably due to fluctuations in the actual x-ray pulses. However, enabled by the speed of the time lens, data presented in figure 3 demonstrates that the intrinsic rise-time of the radoptic effect,  $\tau_g < 1$ ps, consistent with the ~100 fs e-h pair formation time calculated in ref.5.

### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are grateful for support of Alan Wan, Cynthia Nitta, Dana Rowley, Larry Wiley, and Ted Perry, and useful discussions with Rick Stewart and Kevin Baker. This work performed under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Energy by Lawrence Livermore National Lab under Contract DE-AC52-07NA27344.

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